

8. Natural Gas

This chapter discusses the representation of and assumptions for natural gas. The chapter starts with a brief synopsis of ICF's Gas Market Model (GMM), the primary tool used for generating the natural gas supply curves. This is followed by a discussion of the approach taken to translate GMM results to IPM inputs for the EPA's 2023 Reference Case. Lastly, brief descriptions of modeling methodologies and data used in GMM are presented.

Natural gas supply curves and seasonal basis differentials are key inputs to IPM and are developed using GMM. GMM and IPM are iterated in tandem to develop a forecast of Henry Hub gas price and total power sector gas demand that informs the derivation of the supply curves. The approach is described as follows:

- IPM takes the natural gas supply curves, which are developed based on GMM outputs and specified as a function of Henry Hub prices.
- For each year, delivered price adders and four sets of seasonal natural gas transportation differentials (summer, winter, fall, and spring) are added to the supply curves to generate the final delivered curves by IPM region.
- IPM projects the power sector's demand for natural gas. The projected demand is then matched with the supply curve to find the market-clearing price.
- IPM's linear programming formulation takes into consideration the gas supply curves, as well as competing fuels such as coal, and detailed power plant modeling in determining electric market equilibrium conditions.

Like IPM, GMM is a large-scale linear programming model that incorporates a detailed representation of gas supply and demand characteristics and an integrating pipeline transportation model to develop forecasts of gas supply, demand, prices, and flows. GMM is a full supply/demand equilibrium model of the North American gas market. The model solves for monthly natural gas prices throughout North America, given different supply/demand conditions, the assumptions for which are specified by each scenario.

On the supply side, prices from GMM are determined by production and storage price curves that reflect prices as a function of production and storage utilization. Prices are also influenced by "pipeline discount" curves, which reflect the change in basis or the marginal value of gas transmission as a function of load factor. On the demand side, prices are represented by a curve that captures the fuel-switching behavior of end-users at different price levels. The model balances supply and demand at all nodes in the model at the market clearing prices. Figure 8-1 shows the supply side of the calculation in GMM, and Figure 8-2 shows the interaction of IPM and GMM.

Figure 8-1 GMM Gas Quantity and Price Response

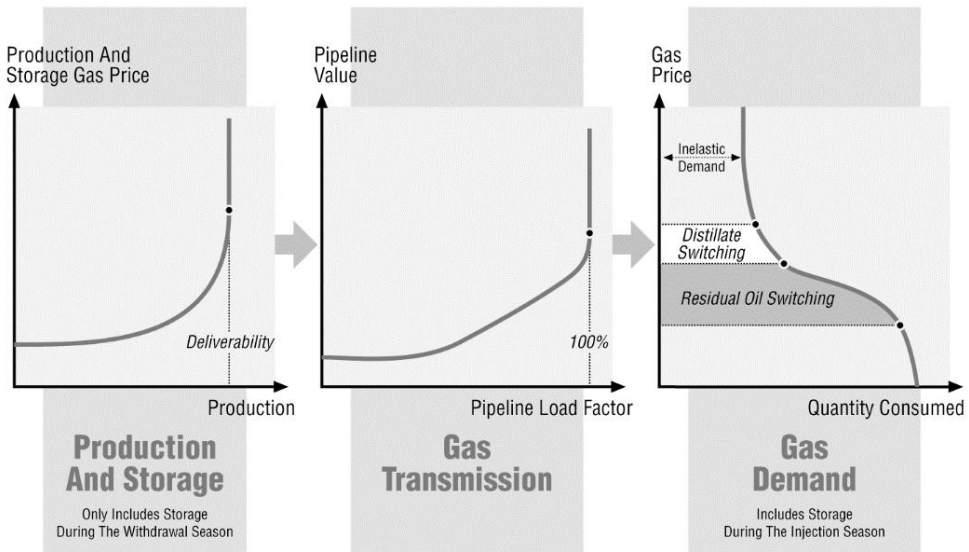
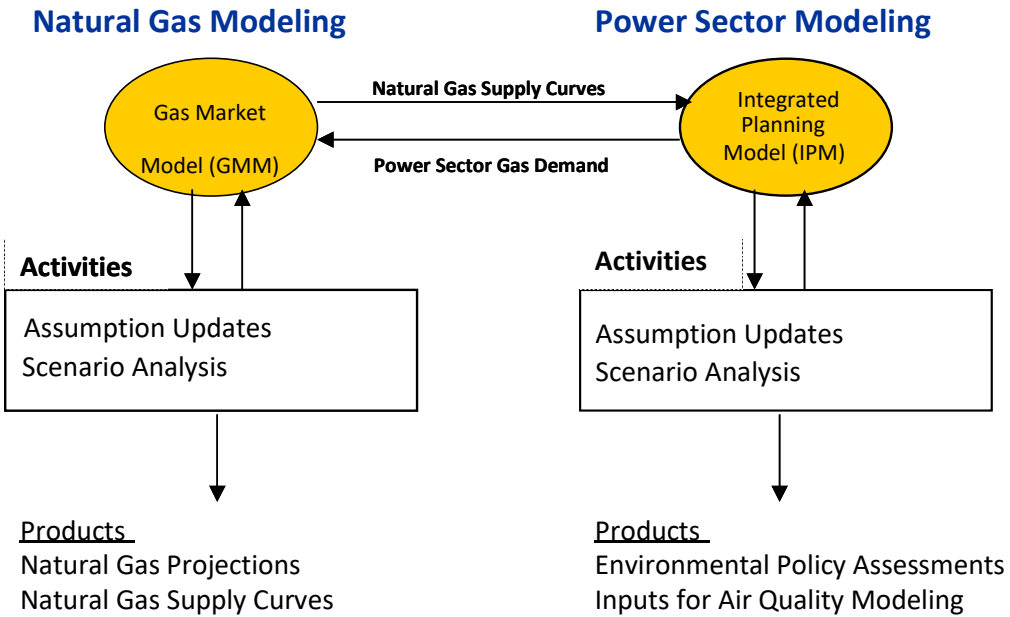


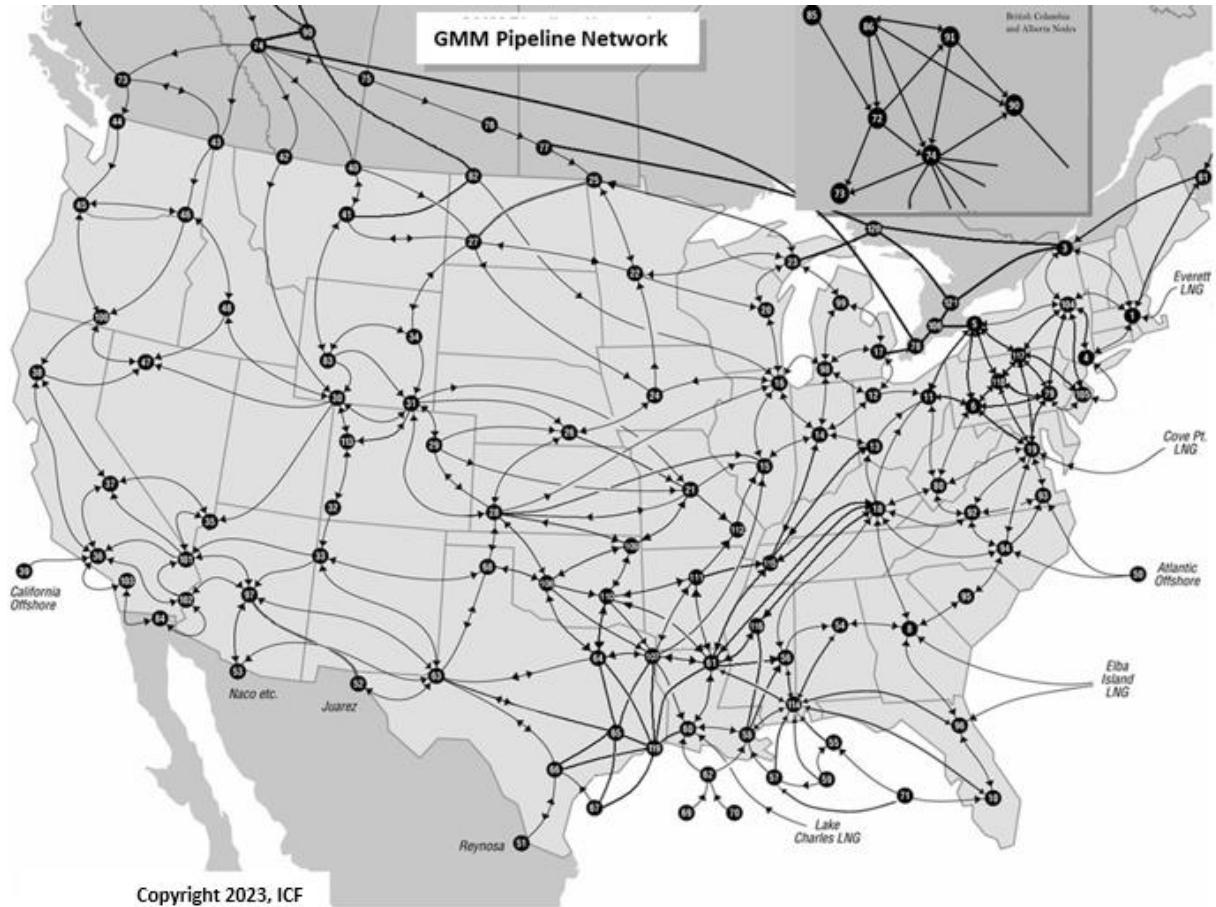
Figure 8-2 IPM/GMM Interaction



8.1 GMM

GMM is designed to perform comprehensive assessments of the entire North American gas flow pattern. It is a large-scale, dynamic linear program that models economic decision-making to minimize the overall cost of meeting natural gas demand. GMM is reliable and efficient in analyzing the broad range of natural gas market issues. Figure 8-3 presents the geographic coverage of GMM.

Figure 8-3 Geographic Coverage of GMM



Important features of GMM are described below.

Natural Gas Market Prices in GMM are determined by the marginal (or incremental) value of natural gas at 121 regional market centers. The regional market centers are also referred to as nodes. Prices are “at the margin”, not “average.” Marginal prices do not translate directly into pipeline or utility revenues. Prices represent “market center” prices as opposed to delivered prices. Gas prices are determined by the balance of supply and demand in a regional marketplace. Supply is determined considering the availability of natural gas deliverability at the wellhead, the transportation capacity, and the cost to deliver gas to market centers.

Natural gas prices are determined from spot gas price curves that yield price as a function of deliverability utilization: Curves reflect the price for gas delivered into the transmission system (including gathering cost). During the withdrawal season, gas storage withdrawal price curves are added to the production

price curves. Pipeline value curves are then added to yield a total supply curve for a node. The intersection of the supply curve and the demand curve (including net storage injections) yields the marginal price at a node. Price is set by the demand curve when all available supply is utilized.

Demand is modeled for residential, commercial, industrial, and power sectors for each of the 121 nodes. GMM solves for gas demand across different sectors, given economic growth, weather, and the level of price competition between gas and oil. Econometric equations define demand by sector. The industrial and power sectors incorporate fuel competition, dispatch decisions, new power plant builds, economic growth, and weather. GMM solves the power generation dispatch on a regional basis to determine the amount of gas used in power generation, which is allocated along with end-use gas demand to model nodes. GMM iterates with IPM to better capture the electric sector demand for natural gas.

Transportation is modeled by over 530 transportation links between the nodes, balancing seasonal, sectoral, and regional demand and prices, including pipeline tariffs and capacity allocation. Node structure was developed to reflect points of change or influence on the pipeline system. These points include major demand and supply centers, pipeline hubs and market centers, and points of divergence in pipeline corridors.

Pipeline capacity expansions address the physical constraints of transporting gas from supply regions to demand regions. They, therefore, contribute to determining the supply curves and seasonal basis. For the near-term, pipeline capacity expansions are input to GMM based on identifiable, near-term development plans and ICF's market assessment. For the longer term, new "generic" pipeline capacity is added in GMM when the market value of the added capacity exceeds its cost. Generic pipeline capacity in the model can be added starting in 2025 and is deployed in response to expected growth in natural gas markets.

ICF includes projects that satisfy certain criteria in its analysis. The criteria are listed below.

- First Criteria: The project is already under construction; OR...
- Second Criteria: The project has the necessary approvals to proceed from FERC and other relevant regulatory proceedings; OR...
- Third Criteria: The project has been filed with FERC and has the necessary firm shipper commitments; OR...
- Fourth Criteria: The project has been filed with FERC and does not have the necessary shipper commitments but does appear to have sufficient market support; OR...
- Fifth Criteria: The project has NOT yet been filed with FERC but appears to have sufficient market support.

For the fourth and fifth criteria, ICF typically considers supply growth directly upstream of the project, market growth for markets that are relevant to the project's delivery point/s, and basis differentials that exceed the per unit cost of pipeline expansion as indicators of market support. If the indicators are all positive, ICF will add the project as a "generic" project and size it based on the level of market support. In the case in which there are multiple generic projects for a single GMM link, the generic projects will be sized in aggregate based on the total level of market support for the expansion of the link. Generic projects are classified as such until one of the first three criteria is satisfied.

For certain markets, like New York, New Jersey, and New England, ICF looks closely at regulatory support for the project, which could override the criteria above in determining the pipeline additions in GMM. For example, if a project like the Northeast Supply Enhancement Project (NESE) has been denied water permits even though it has broad market support, ICF does not include it in its base case.

Pipeline cost assumptions used in GMM have been derived by considering data from Oil and Gas Journal (OGJ) surveys of pipeline projects. Using regression analysis of the OGJ data across years, we

estimated an average U.S. pipeline cost of \$243,000 per inch-mile for 2022 (in 2022 dollars) for large gas transmission pipelines. The pipeline cost for future years is kept flat in real terms post 2019. Regional cost multipliers have also been derived from OJ data, as the pipeline costs vary by region. Cost multipliers can be different across regions; for example, costs are relatively high in the Northeast, where projects have been very difficult and time-consuming to construct.

Supply is modeled by using node-level natural gas deliverability or supply capability, including import and export levels, while accounting for gas storage injections and withdrawals at different gas prices. Total supply in the United States comes from three sources: production from natural gas fields located in the lower 48 states, Canadian imports, Alaska, and LNG imports/exports. Natural gas production activity is represented in 82 of the 121 model nodes where historical production has occurred or where future production appears likely.

Natural Gas Storage activity is represented for 24 United States and two Canadian storage regions, with activity allocated to individual nodes based on historical field-level storage capacity. Regional differences in the physical and market characteristics of storage are captured in the storage injection and withdrawal relationships separately estimated for each region.

Net monthly withdrawals are calculated from a “storage supply curve” that reflects the level of withdrawals relative to gas prices. The curve has been fit to actual historical data. Net monthly injections are calculated from econometrically fit relationships that consider working gas levels, gas prices, and weather (i.e., cooling degree days). The level of gas storage withdrawals and injections are calculated within the supply and demand balance algorithm based on working gas levels, gas prices, and extraction/injection rates and costs.

Storage levels have an impact on GMM’s seasonal basis differentials, which are an important component in constructing the gas supply curves and/or basis differentials that are then input into IPM. The arbitrage value of storage is driven by the seasonal difference in the supply-area gas prices plus the seasonal difference in pipeline transportation value. Storage expansions (or increased utilization of existing storage) decreases seasonal basis differentials in the region surrounding the storage facilities.

8.2 Translating GMM Results to IPM Natural Gas Supply Curves

A typical GMM run that underlies the natural gas supply curves generates the following outputs:

- Natural gas prices
- Natural gas production by region
- Natural gas consumption by region and sector

The regional breakout in the demand/supply data is by census region and the mapping to the state and GMM nodes is provided in Figure 8-4 and Figure 8-5.

Figure 8-4 Demand Region Definition

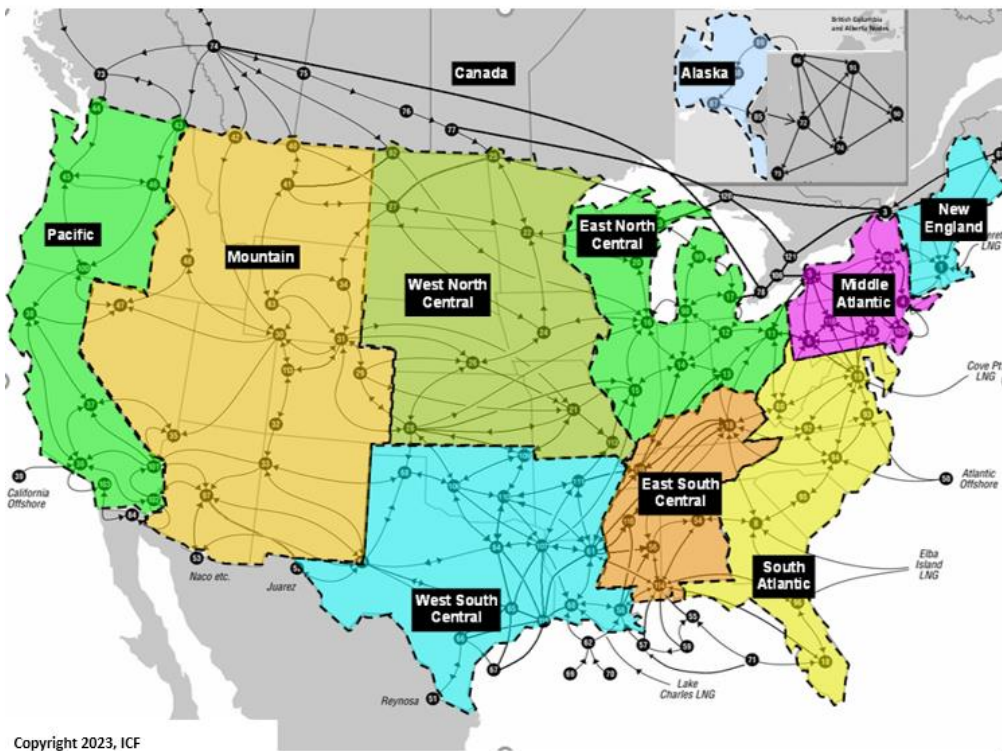
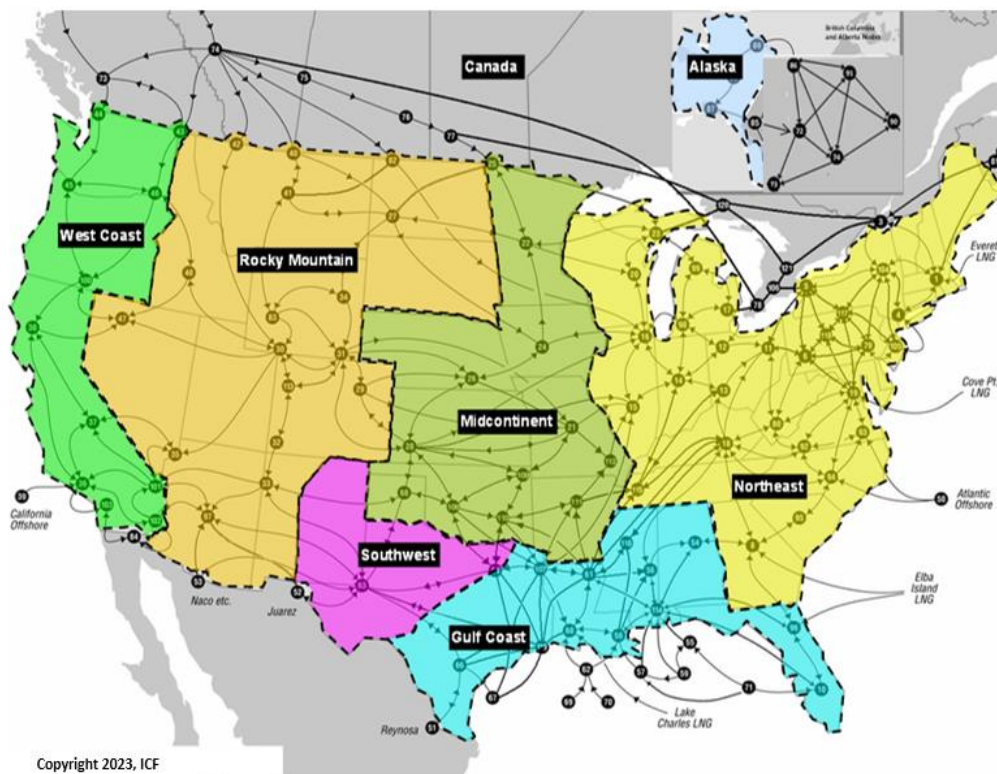


Figure 8-5 Supply Region Definition



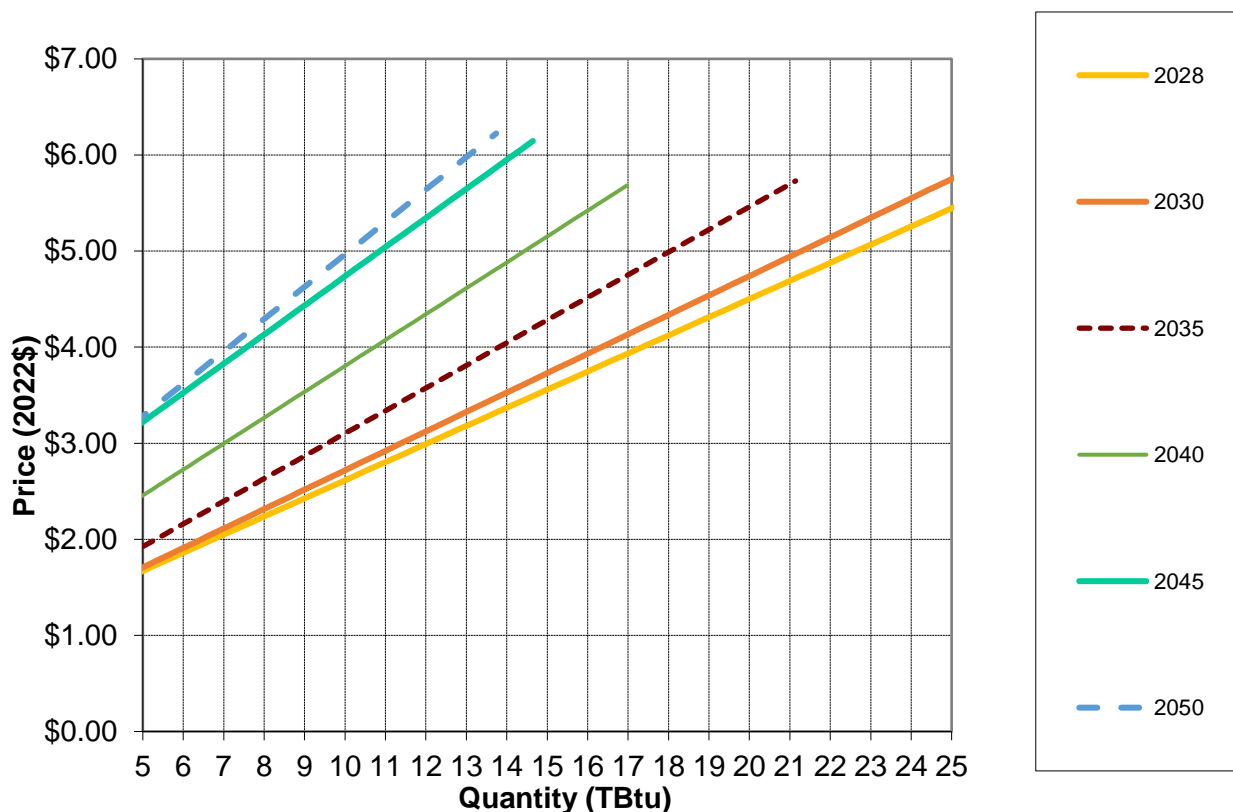
8.2.1 Supply Curves for EPA 2023 Reference Case

Henry Hub is a pipeline interchange hub in Louisiana Gulf Coast near Erath, LA, where eight interstate and three intrastate pipelines interconnect. Liquidity at this point is very high and it serves as the primary point of exchange for the New York Mercantile Exchange (NYMEX) active natural gas futures markets. Henry Hub prices are considered a proxy for U.S. natural gas prices. Natural gas from the Gulf moves through the Henry Hub onto long-haul interstate pipelines serving demand centers. Due to the importance and significance of Henry Hub, GMM-generated supply curves are specified at Henry Hub prices.

For IPM modeling, GMM generates a price forecast over a time horizon and a set of time-dependent price/supply curves based on that price path for each year in the forecast. For each year, the mid-point price of the supply curve is set equal to the solved Henry Hub price from GMM, and the mid-point volume is set equal to the solved gas consumption for the power sector from GMM. Each supply curve's elasticity is set equal to the effective price elasticity for gas supply in that year. In this manner, even while GMM has itself projected particular levels of gas supply and consumption (and corresponding market-clearing prices) over time, the information included in those projections is input into IPM in the form of gas supply curves that enable IPM to solve for levels of power sector gas consumption and resulting gas prices that respect a least-cost power production future. The power generation gas used by the model region from IPM run outputs is used as inputs in GMM to generate a new set of supply curves and basis, which are used by IPM as inputs for the next iteration. This iteration process is repeated until the power generation gas uses from IPM and GMM converge.

Figure 8-6 and Table 8-8 show the final resulting supply curves developed for the years 2028, 2030, 2035, 2040, 2045, and 2050. Over time, gas supply becomes more price elastic because producers have more time to respond to market changes. In the longer term, resource depletion tends to offset elasticity, making the curves slightly less elastic than they were between 2028 and 2030.

Figure 8-6 Supply Curves for 2028, 2030, 2035, 2040, 2045, and 2050



The static national supply curves used for EPA 2023 Reference Case are robust for typical scenario analysis, although EPA re-evaluates price dynamics in scenarios to ensure that IPM and GMM are iterated in cases where the regional natural gas demand in the power sector is expected to be significantly different from the reference case.

8.2.2 Basis

The basis is the difference in gas price in a given market from the widely used Henry Hub reference price. Basis reflects the price in a given market based on demand, available supply, and the cost of transporting gas to that location. A negative basis value represents that the gas price in that area is lower than the Henry Hub price. The basis between two nodes in GMM is the difference in prices between the two nodes. The GMM utilizes its network of 121 nodes that comprises 530 gas pipeline corridors to assess the basis between two desired nodes. The pipeline corridors between nodes are represented by pipeline links and can be characterized by their maximum capacity. Each of the links has an associated discount curve (derived from the GMM natural gas transportation module), which represents the marginal value of gas transmission on that pipeline segment as a function of the pipeline’s load factor. The basis value is calculated by using the supply/demand balance in two nodes, along with the resulting prices in each node and the cost of transporting gas between the two nodes as determined by the discount curve on that link. The discount curve is a function of the pipeline tariffs and the load factor. The discount curves are continuously calibrated to accurately reflect historical basis values. Their parameters can be adjusted to account for regulatory changes that can affect pipeline values.

U.S. Resources and Reserves

This section describes the U.S. resource data sources and methodology used in GMM for EPA 2023 Reference Case.

Current U.S. and Canadian gas production comes from over 470 trillion cubic feet (Tcf) of proven gas reserves. ICF assumes that the U.S. and Canada natural gas resource base totals roughly 4,000 Tcf of unproved plus discovered but undeveloped gas resources. This can supply the U.S. and Canada gas markets for over 100 years (at current consumption levels). Shale gas accounts for over 50 percent of the remaining recoverable gas resources. No significant restrictions on well permitting and fracturing are assumed beyond restrictions that are currently in place.

Data sources: Conventional resource base assessment is based on data from the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS), Minerals Management Service (MMS), and Canadian Gas Potential Committee (CGPC) using ICF's Hydrocarbon Supply Model (HSM).

In the area of unconventional gas, ICF has worked for many years with the Gas Research Institute (GRI)/Gas Technology Institute (GTI) to develop a database of tight gas, coalbed methane, and Devonian Shale reservoirs in the U.S. and Canada. Along with USGS assessments of continuous plays, the database was used to help develop the HSM's "cells," which represent resources in a specific geographic area, characterizing the unconventional resource in each basin, historical unconventional reserves estimates, and typical decline curves. ICF has built up a database on gas compositions in the United States and has merged that data with production data to allow the analysis of net versus raw gas production.

Resources are divided into three general categories: new fields/new pools, field appreciation, and unconventional gas. The methodology for resource characterization and economic evaluation differs for each.

New Fields

Conventional new discoveries are characterized by size class. For the United States, the number of fields within a size class is broken down into oil fields, high permeability gas fields, and low permeability gas fields based on the expected occurrence of each type of field within the region and interval being modeled. The fields are characterized further as having a hydrocarbon make-up containing a certain percent each of crude oil, dry natural gas, and natural gas liquids. In Canada, fields are oil, sweet non-associated gas, or sour non-associated gas.

The methodology uses a modified "Arps-Roberts" equation to estimate the rate at which new fields are discovered. The fundamental theory behind the find-rate methodology is that the probability of finding a field is proportional to the field's size as measured by its areal extent, which is highly correlated to the field's level of reserves. For this reason, larger fields tend to be found earlier in the discovery process than smaller fields. The new equation developed by ICF accurately tracks discovery rates for mid- to small-size fields. Since these are the only fields left to be discovered in many mature areas, the more accurate find-rate representation is an important component in analyzing the economics of exploration activity in these areas.

An economic evaluation is made in the model each year for potential new field exploration programs using a standard discounted after-tax discounted cash flow (DCF) analysis. This DCF analysis takes into account how many fields of each type are expected to be found and the economics of developing each. The economic decision to develop a field is made using "sunk cost" economics, where the discovery cost is ignored, and only time-forward development costs and production revenues are considered. However, the model's decision to begin an exploration program includes all exploration and development costs.

Field Appreciation

Field appreciation refers to potential resources that can be proved from already discovered fields. These inventories are referred to as appreciation, growth-to-known, or “probables.” The inventories of probables are increased due to expected future appreciation due to many factors that include higher recovery percentages of the gas in-place resulting from infill drilling and application of improved technology and experience gained in the course of developing and operating the field.

Unconventional Gas

The ICF assessment method for shale gas is a “bottom-up” approach that first generates estimates of unrisked and risked gas-in-place (GIP) from maps of depth, thickness, organic content, and thermal maturity. Then, ICF uses a different model to estimate well recoveries and production profiles. Unrisked GIP is the amount of original gas-in-place determined to be present based upon geological factors—without risk reductions. “Risked GIP” includes a factor to reduce the total gas volume based on proximity to existing production and geologic factors such as net thickness (e.g., remote areas, thinner areas, and areas of high thermal maturity have higher risk). ICF calibrates expected well recoveries with specific geological settings to actual well recoveries by using a rigorous method of analysis of historical well data.

To estimate the contributions of changing technologies ICF employs the “learning curve” concept used in several industries. The “learning curve” describes the aggregate influence of learning and new technologies as having a certain percent effect on a key productivity measure (for example cost per unit of output or feet drilled per rig per day) for each doubling of cumulative output volume or other measure of industry/technology maturity. The learning curve shows that advances are rapid (measured as percent improvement per period of time) in the early stages when industries or technologies are immature and that those advances decline through time as the industry or technology matures. We find the learning curve effect is roughly 20 percent per doubling of cumulative wells.

Major Unconventional Natural Gas Categories

Definition of Unconventional Gas: Quantities of natural gas that occur in continuous, widespread accumulations in low quality reservoir rocks (including low permeability or tight gas, coalbed methane, and shale gas), that are produced through wellbores but require advanced technologies or procedures for economic production.

Tight Gas is defined as natural gas from gas-bearing sandstones or carbonates with an *in-situ* permeability (flow rate capability) to gas of less than 0.1 millidarcy. Many tight gas sands have *in situ* permeability as low as 0.001 millidarcy. Wells are typically vertical or directional and require artificial stimulation.

Coalbed Methane is defined as natural gas produced from coal seams. The coal acts as both the source and reservoir for the methane. Wells are typically vertical but can be horizontal. Some coals are wet and require water removal to produce the gas, while others are dry.

Shale Gas is defined as natural gas from shale formations. The shale acts as both the source and reservoir for the methane. Older shale gas wells were vertical while more recent wells are primarily horizontal with artificial stimulation. Only shale formations with certain characteristics will produce gas.

Shale Oil with Associated Gas is defined as associated gas from oil shale in horizontal drilling plays such as the Bakken in the Williston Basin. The gas is produced through boreholes along with the oil.

Upstream Cost and Technology Factors

In ICF's methodology, supply technology advancements effects are represented in three categories:

- Improved exploratory success rates
- Cost reductions of platform, drilling, and other components
- Improved recovery per well

These factors are included in the model by region and type of gas and represent several dozen actual model parameters. ICF's database contains base year costs for wells, platforms, operations and maintenance, and other relevant cost items.

8.3.2 Oil Prices

Natural gas prices and LNG export levels are forecasted by taking oil prices into account. ICF uses the Refiner Acquisition Cost of Crude Oil (RACC) price as an oil price input to GMM. The RACC price is a term commonly used in discussing crude oil. It is the cost of crude oil to the refiner, including transportation and fees. ICF's crude oil price forecast uses futures prices for 2022 and a blend of futures and our fundamental forecast for 2022-2025. ICF expects an equilibrium marginal production cost of ~\$64/bbl (in 2022\$) by 2035 and stays flat beyond 2035 in real terms. The residual oil price averages between 70 and 100 percent of the RACC price on a dollar per Btu basis. This is the price used to determine switching in the industrial sector. Table 8-2 shows the RACC price assumption for EPA 2023 Reference Case.

Table 8-2 Refiners' Acquisition Cost of Crude (RACC)

Year	Annual Average Price in 2022\$/bbl
2028	60.9
2030	61.8
2035	64.2
2040	64.2
2045	64.2
2050	64.2

8.3.3 Gas Production

Current United States and Canada gas production is from over 470 trillion cubic feet (Tcf) of proven gas reserves. ICF assumes that the United States and Canada's natural gas resource base totals roughly 4,000 Tcf of unproved plus discovered but undeveloped gas resources. This can supply the U.S. and Canadian gas markets for over 100 years (at current consumption levels). Shale gas accounts for over 50 percent of the remaining recoverable gas resources. No significant restrictions on well permitting and fracturing are assumed beyond restrictions that are currently in place.

To estimate the contributions of changing technologies ICF employs the "learning curve" concept used in several industries. The "learning curve" describes the aggregate influence of learning and new technologies as having a certain percent effect on a key productivity measure (for example, cost per unit of output or feet drilled per rig per day) for each doubling of cumulative output volume or other measures of industry/technology maturity. The learning curve shows that advances are rapid (measured as percent improvement per period of time) in the early stages when industries or technologies are immature and that those advances decline through time as the industry or technology matures. The learning curve effect is roughly 20 percent per doubling of cumulative wells.

- ii) **Electric Demand Growth:** The electric demand growth rate is assumed to be 0.75% per year, consistent with the EPA 2023 Reference Case.
- iii) **Demographics:** Projected demographic trends are consistent with trends over the past 20 years. U.S. population growth averages about 1% per year throughout our projection.
- iv) **Weather:** Future weather is assumed consistent with regional and monthly average heating and cooling degree days (HDD/CDD) over the past 20 years (2002 through 2021).

Figure 8-7 GMM Power Generation Gas Demand Regions

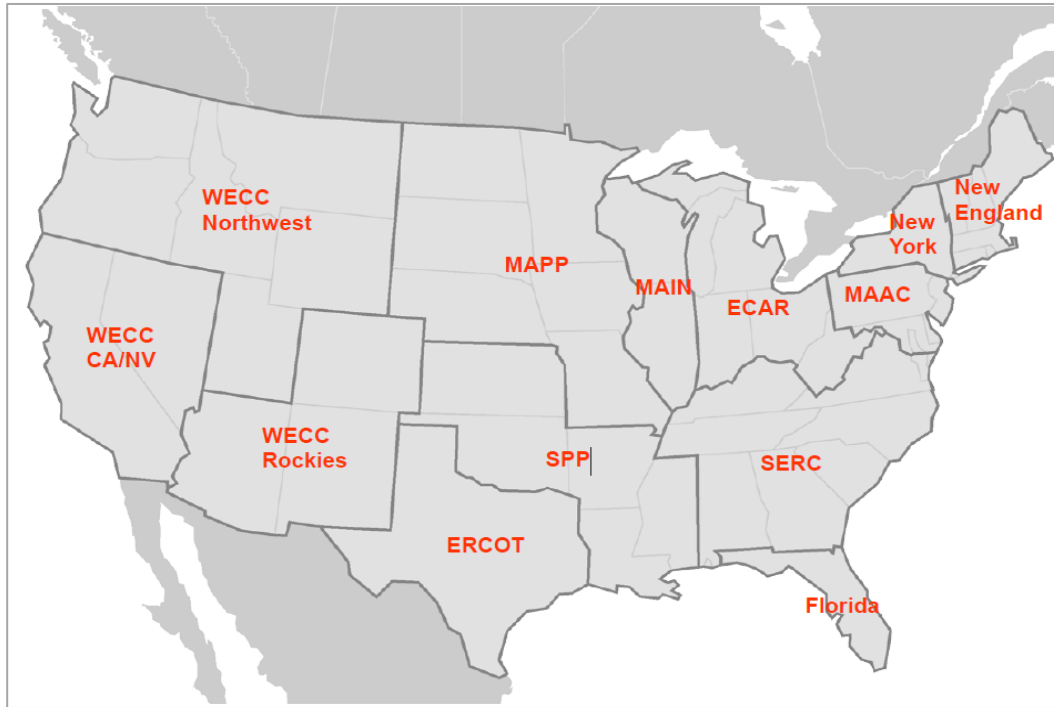


Table 8-4 shows the ICF’s United States and Canada natural gas demand by sector and run year for EPA 2023 Reference Case.

Table 8-4 GMM United States and Canada Gas Demand Projection (Bcfd)

Year	Residential	Commercial	Industrial	Other	Non-Power	Power
2028	16.2	10.9	29.9	10.4	57.1	34.4
2030	16.2	10.9	30.2	10.5	57.3	33.8
2035	16.1	10.7	31.3	10.9	58.1	27.4
2040	16.2	10.8	31.9	10.4	58.9	20.0
2045	16.4	11.1	32.1	10.2	59.6	16.4
2050	16.6	11.3	31.1	10.4	59.0	19.4

Note: “Other” includes pipeline fuel and lease & plant.

8.3.5 LNG Exports and Pipeline Exports to Mexico

Existing and Potential Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG) Terminals

ICF aligned its LNG export based demand to EIA’s Annual Energy Outlook (AEO) 2023 LNG assumptions. AEO 2023 assumes 13.3 Bcfd of net exports, including feedgas in 2023 which increases to 17.6 Bcfd by 2028. Between 2028 to 2050, an additional 11.9 Bcfd of export based demand is expected to come online. In the long term, the LNG facilities are expected to be 90% utilized.

Table 8-5 Net LNG Export Volumes as per AEO 2023 (Bcf/d)

Year	Net LNG Exports (Annual Average)
2028	17.6
2030	20.2
2035	28.0
2040	29.3
2045	29.4
2050	29.4

Pipeline Exports to Mexico

Mexico’s demand for natural gas will continue to increase between 2020 and 2030 due to Mexico’s expansion of its domestic pipeline infrastructure, increased power generation gas demand, and lower domestic production. Since 2015, Mexico’s imports of U.S. gas have undergone a 124% increase, reaching 6.4 Bcf/d in 2022. ICF projects that exports will reach 8.2 Bcf/d by 2030. ICF assumes the first phase of the Costa Azul LNG export facility will be built in Mexico, further increasing pipeline exports to Mexico from the United States.

Table 8-6 U.S. Pipeline Exports to Mexico (Bcf/d)

Year	California	West Texas/ New Mexico	Arizona	South Texas
2028	0.5	2.0	0.6	5.1
2030	0.5	2.1	0.6	5.0
2035	0.5	2.4	0.7	4.4
2040	0.5	2.4	0.7	4.4
2045	0.5	2.4	0.7	4.4
2050	0.5	2.4	0.7	4.3

List of tables that are uploaded directly to the web:

Table 8-7 Natural Gas Basis for EPA 2023 Reference Case

Table 8-8 Natural Gas Supply Curves for EPA 2023 Reference Case